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ABSTRACT

This issue contains two articles in Spanish and three in English on the following topics: the practical presentation of English for Special Purposes (ESP) materials in science programs at the National University of Trujillo, "notional syllabus" and "discourse analysis" in relation to ESP materials, extra-linguistic principles in explaining language facts, diphthongation in "Kechwa de Ancash-Huaylas," and a typology of language situations. The first article is a discussion of some aspects of the practical classroom presentation of texts in scientific English using recently published textbooks. The second article is a discussion of terms: notional syllabus refers to the organization of a syllabus according to semantic expression. Discourse analysis refers to the informational coherence of texts, and the markers used to point the way to understanding such texts. In the third paper, some of the extra-linguistic principles related to language use that enable human beings to interact socially are discussed. The distinctive features of one of the dialects in the Quechua group of dialects are analyzed in the fourth article. Thirty types of communication situations involving interaction of the five factors: "speaker, listener, channel, code and information" are discussed and classified in the last article. (AMH)

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Teresa Gálvez_Touzet

The Practical Presentation of Recent ESP Materials in some Science Programs of the National University of Trujillo +)

Abstract

Learning ESP can be an interesting task for the students if the teacher is willing to improve his techniques and look for up - to-date materials which he can develop according to his student's needs .
We must remember that it is not the textbook that teaches , it is the teacher. This article illustrates the above by reference to classes of scientific English taught in the National University of Trujillo, using recently-published textbooks based on the "notional syllabus" and "discourse analysis". Some aspects of the practical, classroom presentation of the texts are given, and it is remarked how students see this kind of ESP-material as a more meaningful vehicle for expression in English.

(LenC 17.3, pp.73-77,1977)

This paper attemts to show how this typo of nglish is being effectivily taught in the National University of Trujillo . It is based on the experiences that the writer has obtained by teaching ESP to some groups of students from Micro - biology , Fishing Biology , Chemical Engi - neering and Pharmacy programs with the " Nu- cleus " and " Focus " textbook series . For the first time in this University, the students of nglish I from Microbiology and Fishing Biology are being taught scientific nglish from the " Nucleus " textbook"General Science " together with their regular course of nglish grammar . lthough this means extra work they do not camplain but express their interest in the fact that the classes are interesting and alive ; they even demon- strate their surprise because the language allows appropiate scientific communication in their nglish classes . They say they understand now that nglish is worthwhile , useful and can be related to their courses . These students , as all students who have finished high school in eru , had studied English for five years before coming to the university . nd those five years were mainly devoted to the study of grammar . So when they arrive at the university and are taught the same boring , from their point of view , grammar they are disappointed . But if we include in the syllabus a course like the one I am referring to , " General Science "

the linguistic scenery changes and it is possible to obtain a better and more enthusiastic participation from the students .
The new material we are using proposes that the students must be taught w t is seman - tically necessaty for them t o comunicate .
Explanations are short and in Spanish , language practice is supported by visual aids , miming and gestures . Sometimes a simle drawing on the blackboard can be the motivation and object of the class as happens in the very first lesson of " General Science " that deals with shapes .
The teacher draws on the blackboard the following elements and at the same time , he names them ;

This is a point ,etc.
Then he asks the students to answer the information questions : hat is this ? .Following this he asks the students to ask questions to each other .
After he asks the students " yes/no questions.

The students answer and then ask questions to each other .
Next the teacher utilizes what the student has learned to describe letters :
Teacher - Describe the letter H .
Student - It has one horizontal line and two vertical lines . It also has four angles.

Next this is applied to mathematical signs :

+ , - , X , : , etc .

Students are so interested in the subject that they do not realize that they are learning english they become confident and use language more freely .

This is followed by presentation of figures:

Teacher : which figure is cirved ?
Student : The circle is cirved .
Teacher : Which figure has paralled sides ?
et. etc.

There are some answers that surprise you; for instanse ; I receive once the following :
Teacher : Does a rectangle have parallel sides?
Student : Yes , and the square does too .
In this case the student's extended reply (... and the square does too) is using a pattern taught in his grammar course - thus the grammar course complements the scientific English.
Usually the students are asked to make sentences fro a table or a diagram . As the course prog - resses the exercises become more complicated but they always start with the simplest ones.
To teach location for examplo we use the flannel-board and figures cut out of coloured cardboard. This makes the presentation of sentences more vivid and meaninful .
The same method is possible with " Focus " material .This has been used with classes in Pharmacy and Chemical Engineering .

This material presents different activities beginning with a text to read . All activities are based on the text . Some of the activities are: Solutions to comprehension exercises , contextual reference , rephrasing ,relationships between statements ,statements based on diagrams, the writing of definitions and description of simple experiments and paragraph writing .This last includes sentences and paragraph reconstruction. The most interesting activity is the solving of problems because these are essentially a development of some exercises and bring the student 's atention to bear on problems which are related both to the subject matter and the language used in the preceding reading passage and exercises. To solve the problems the student has to use his experiences of both English and science and in providing a soution he is necessarily integrating the two areas of knowledge in a meaninful way . Our students werw specially interested when they were solving a problem in classification of information ("English in Physical Science" page 10) about acids .

We presented the pictures from the book in bright coloured paper on two white sheets of cardboard. As usual we presetds the material orally . The students were asked to arrange some information from the pitures in a table already drawn by the teacher on the blackboard. Then they were asked to write definitions of the four acids and descriptios of the four radicals.

It is not the textbook that teaches, it is the teacher.

+) Paper read at the XIth Symposium of the Department of Second Languages and Linguistics of the National University of Trujillo, June 1977.

Harry Hawkes

The ideas of 'Notional Syllabus' and 'Discourse Analysis' in relation to ESP materials

Abstract

Brief explanations with examples are given of the ideas of 'notional syllabus' and 'discourse analysis'. The basis of the former is in the organisation of a syllabus according to the semantic expression of ideas rather than in grading of grammar and vocabulary. The basis of the latter is in the informational coherence of texts (written or spoken) and the markers which are used to point the way to understanding of such texts. These two approaches are suggested as being valuable for teaching of specialist students in fields such as science, and examples are given of two recent series of textbooks which use these approaches.

(LenC 17.3, pp. 78-87, 1977)

In this paper I want to set out the main ideas of two recently developed linguistic research areas and illustrate their application to the teaching of English for Special Purposes (ESP) by reference to two series of English language textbooks.

The 'Notional Syllabus' is an approach to language teaching which has recently been much investigated, especially by linguists working with the Council of Europe(1, 2, 3). It deals with language from a semantic point of view; it thus has its roots in Bloomfield and Firth, rather than the logical cul-de-sac of Chomsky or the mechanical behaviourism of Skinner.

There are, it is argued, certain notional categories (or 'semantic' categories) into which language acts may be grouped. Wilkins (4) suggests three divisions for such acts:

(a) Semantico-grammatical meaning

where the form of the grammatical structure carries the meaning;

(b) Modal meaning

where attitudes of the speaker are expressed;

(c) Communicative function meaning

where social purpose is expressed.

He gives lists of different 'notions' which he thinks fit into these three divisions, e.g.

(a) = time, quantity, deixis

(b) = moral evaluation, suasion, modality etc.

(c) = personal emotions, relations.

It is not claimed that these lists are exhaustive; indeed, in the field of semantics there are so many variables that it may not be possible to establish an exhaustive breakdown into categories.

Notwithstanding this last caveat, the theory of the notional approach to language provides an interestingly different angle from which to approach language teaching; especially in the field of languages for special purposes where it is generally possible to limit the number of notions which have to be expressed in, say, chemical engineering. This allows us to overcome the problem of trying to deal with a full range of notions which we would need to cope with in teaching general language.

Traditionally, we have taught language through grammar. We have divided the grammar into its different parts and have taught these one by one, gradually moving from the simple ("This is a book") to the more difficult ("If I'd known you hadn't intended to come, I'd've stayed at home too"). The vocabulary also has been graded. The process has been one of breaking down the language into smaller and smaller bits for teaching, and the pupil is expected to synthesise all these bits of language back into a useful competence in the language.

The main drawback in this system, at least as far as a normal school language teaching programme is concerned, is obvious - it doesn't work. Even after years of teaching, the pupils rarely attain a useful command of the language. The teaching process, based on the mechanical analysis of the grammatical structure and vocabulary of the language, does not lead to a functional competence in the tongue. Often, this must be because the language units taught are so 'bitty' that a synthesis of them by the pupil does not seem reasonable to him. The lesson materials, also, are very often divorced from any reality that the speaker might encounter in his need to use the language. The whole effect is sometimes an insult to the intellectual capacity of a pupil, even at the age of 11 or 12.

The notional syllabus proposes that the pupil should be taught what is semantically necessary for him to express and/or understand. The grammatical structures are then slotted into the semantic scheme as vehicles for the communication of the notions.

This rather implies that the time-honoured grading and sequencing of grammatical and vocabulary items will be subordinate to the need to express a notion. It is argued that the stimulation of a notion-to-be-expressed will motivate pupils to cope with ungraded language items. However, some grading is possible: the same notions can be reintroduced at different stages of a course and each time slightly more advanced structures can be used. It is easier, for example, to say 'May I use your telephone?' than to say 'You don't mind if I use your telephone, do you?' But both convey the same notion.

The suggested system is a 'loop' arrangement, whereby the notion reoccurs in the course at various intervals and is expressed with progressively more difficult structures.

This approach is used in the 'Nucleus' textbook series (5). This begins with a book on 'General Science', which is meant to be an introductory course in scientific English for pupils who have just undergone a secondary school language course. Work done with 'General Science' is the basis for more specialised, subject-specific language study in other textbooks of the series, such as 'Chemistry', 'Agriculture' etc. The semantic categories used in units in 'General Science' are paralleled in corresponding units in the subject-specific books. This gives rise to the 'loop' effect. The lay-out of units in all books is as follows:

Unit 1: properties and shapes
Unit 2: location
Unit 3: structure
Unit 4: measurement 1
Unit 5: process-function and ability
Unit 6: process-actions in sequence
Unit 7: measurement 2 - quantity
Unit 8: process-cause and effect
Unit 9: measurement 3 - proportion
Unit 10 measurement 4 - frequency, tendency and probability

Unit 11 process-method
Unit 12 consolidation

So far, so good. However, notions are not usually expressed in isolation. They form elements of a connected piece of communication made in a context. The 'context-plus-notions' is usually communicated by either spoken or written means. This manifestation

of the communication in its context is called "discourse".

In general, discourse consists of patterned semantic units exchanged between two (or more) interlocutors. Each interlocutor has mastery of the system of semantic units in his native tongue and this enables him to initiate or to reply to discourse acts.

Discourse, because of its patterned nature, can be analysed. Spoken discourse is more difficult to analyse because of its impromptu nature - a conversation may be changed, redirected, interrupted, annulled etc. at the will of any speaker or under the influence of external, non-linguistic events. Consider, for example, the following possible reactions to what is a normal grammatical interrogative:

"Have you got a daughter?"

I beg your pardon?
Yes, I have.
No, I haven't.
What business is that of yours?
Don't you interfere with my daughter!

Written discourse, by its more permanent, graphic and controlled nature, is easier to investigate. There are still two interlocutors - the writer and the reader. The difference is that the writer's discourse is unalterable by the reader. There must be, however, a communicative interaction between the writer and reader for understanding to take place. They must, in other words, both work within the same communicative competence. A lack or excess on either side will disrupt communication.

We must try to ensure, as teachers of a language, that those using it understand the conventions of how to express 'notions' and how to fit them together coherently into 'discourse'. If we limit our analysis of discourse to one specific subject area, like chemical engineering, we are then dealing with a bounded specialist set of vocabulary and grammatical structures used to express information in a logical way. It then becomes easier to analyse and to present to students for learning. Limiting the discourse to the written form also avoids the unpredictability of spoken discourse. For this reason, textbooks based on discourse analysis generally teach a reading comprehension of the language.

Basically, the analysis is possible because sentences within a discourse have meaningful relationships with each other, in order to express the meaningful progression of ideas. The problem for the reader, even in his own native language, is to see how the pieces of the language jigsaw fit together to give the final meaningful picture.

Language indicates the relationships between sentences by using "rhetorical markers" (7). These are words, or sometimes phrases, indicating how a sentence is linked to what precedes or follows - e.g. 'however' marks a contrast with what preceded; 'in other words' marks the repetition of some information; 'the latter' marks a reference to the second of two objects, statements etc. previously mentioned.

Sometimes, the markers are grammatical items which carry a semantic import, e.g.

'The honey may granulate in cold weather,'
(i.e. there is choice - it can granulate or not).

'Place the acid in a flask over a flame. It must boil.'
(Anaphoric reference to an inanimate, preceding object with the property 'boilable': i.e. acid).

When viewed like this, a text can be seen to be composed of logically-presented information. Very often, the information in the prose can be transferred into tabular or diagrammatic form, or even represented by statements linked by mathematical symbols.

An example of a series of textbooks with this didactic approach is the 'Focus' series (6). Reading passages are given, then exercises are used to practice use of rhetorical markers. Exercises on information transfer are also given. Composition also appears, since construction of sentences involves use of the markers and their understanding.

A significant point is that 'notions' and 'discourse' exist in all languages. We should therefore be able to assume some expertise with these features in his own scientific language for each student that we teach English to. This should help him to master the English discourse. In the same way, the student's understanding of his own branch of science should also help his comprehension of the discourse in English.

In other words, in this type of specialised language teaching, we are not really teaching the student much that is new. We are teaching him how to deal with the same information presented in a different (but logically similar) language.

Our position as language teachers in ESP classes, therefore, is peculiarly different. We are no longer the possessors of knowledge that has to be handed down to the class. We must meet students on an equal basis as participants in the interpretation of the discourse and must be ready to profit from their present intellectual abilities (presuming they have them) in their own tongue. The notional and discourse approach should encourage a "pedagogy of participation" instead of the all-too-common "pedagogy of imposition".(8)

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Ernesto Zierer:

On Extra-linguistic Principles in Explaining Language Facts +)

Abstract

The Human Being to be able to interact socially develops specific strategies, tactics and behavior patterns on the basis of intrinsic faculties and potentialities, following certain principles, many of which are valid within language and explain the so-called linguistic universals. This paper stresses that many facts about language and language use can adequately be explained only on the basis of the principles of feedback, probabilistic prognosis, "Erlebnisvermögen", entropy, optimization, substitutability, relative invariance, hierarchy, co-occurence, sequence, analogy, redundancy, coherence etc. Realizing the validity of these principles in language is and has proved to be a useful approach in empirical research within linguistics.

(LenC 17.3, pp. 88-95, 1977)

The human being lives and survives through social interaction in a specific natural environment. To be able to interact socially, he must develop specific strategies, tactics and behavior patterns on the basis of his intrinsic facultires and potentialities, following certain principles.

Language is the tool to enable social interaction. Through it an elemental contact between human beings is established (communion: H. Gobard, 1976, p.23) and information is transmitted from one human being to another (communication).

But language is also the medium through which the above mentioned socially relevant strategies, tactics and behavior patterns are devloped and activated. Therefore, any theory about language facts that fails to realize this will not explain adequately language phenomenona.

Further, from the methodological point of view it should be considered that the extra-linguistic principles man follows in developing these socially relevant features are valid also within language. Many of the socalled linguistic universals can be explained in terms or with the help of general, extralinguistic principles.

The following principles operating outside natural-language systems are of special interest to empirical research within linguistics:

(1) the principle of feed-back (cf. Schmidt, 1941), which explains, e.g., how the speaker subconciously controls his speech and adapts his language (parole) to the hearer and the environmental conditions in the communication act;

(2) the principle of the socalled probabilistic prognosis: The language user incurs certain expectations as to when, where and with what degree of probability he will be exposed to what kind of linguistic

element and structures (considered in terms of their functional communicative value within the corresponding utterance), co-occurrences of words and meanings etc. typical of that particular language. These expectations facilittate the encoding and decoding of linguistic information. This principle, closely related to the principle of feed-back, is known in psychology also under the name of "persönliches Leitbild" (cf. Klages, 1906) and more recently by the name "informational accomodation" (cf. Frank, 1960, pp. 88 ff.). It should be mentioned that these expectations are not a consequence of the frequency with which certain linguistic elements merely occurred as stimuli in the past but rather develop from the frequency with which the human being has responded to them at the cognitive, affective and physiological levels (cf. Leont'ev, 1974, p.40).

(3) "Erlebnisvermögen": This is a fundamental quality of the human creature (cf. Klages, 1954, pp. 215 ff.). The normal child's success in acquiring his mother tongue (linguistic competence and linguistic performance) is possible precisely due to the fact that this process occurs in "Erlebnissituationen". Second-language learning gives evidence of that: For example, to store a lexical item for future retrieval in the long-term memory of the learner when presented to him within an organized learning context (classroom situation), requires the item to be presented considerably more times than when the same item is learned through real experience, e.g., when the learner is forced to use this item in a real context where he is the actor, i.e., in a situation that has not been organized for learning purposes.

(4) The principle of entropy: Organic systems are subject to the principle of (neg)entropy: the tendency of the system to pass from a state of disorder to a state of order. Language considered as "energeia" is an organic system. In fact, in the process of linguistic encoding, the linguistic message encoded ("energon") represents a state of maximum order (the negentropy having reached 0). In decoding, the process proceeds from a state of maximum disorder (total lack of understanding) of the message (linguistically unstructured) to a state of maximum order (cf. Zierer, 1970, pp. 27-31).

(5) The principle of optimization: This principle refers to the so-called mini-maximal problem, i.e., the problem of how to obtain a maximum of results with a minimum of resources. In human communication, optimization makes it possible to transmit information on a (theoretically) infinite number of things, situations, relations etc. by means of a finite set of words and a relatively small set of rules governing their use in context and the forming of words. Optimization in solving the infinite mini-maximal problem in human communication through language is possible thanks to: (a) certain operative procedures (iteration, concatenation, and certain types of topization); (b) dualization (separation of all possible objects in two levels of individuals: the universe of the domain, and the level of attributes); and (c) polihermeneuticity (the possibility of reinterpreting the same semantico-linguistic structures in different (communication) contexts, thus making it possible to keep the degree of complexity of linguistic utterances within the limits necessary for human communication (cf. Miró Quesada C., 1976, pp. 29-55).

(6) The principle of relative invariance, which in the extra-linguistic sphere refers to the relative stability (in form, function etc.) of entities that

permits man to adapt himself to environment. This principle operates in language use when, e.g., the hearer correctly distinguishes phonemically relevant vowel length both in slow speakers and fast speakers.

(7) The principle of hierarchy: From system theory we know that one of the features of a system is that its elements are hierarchically ordered. Language is a system complex and hence distinguished by the interweaving of different hierarchical orders, where the systems themselves are in hierarchical order with respect to one another.

(8) The principle of co-occurrence: This principle refers to the affinity among things, phenomena, qualities etc. determining their co-occurrence. The validity of this principle is very distinctively discerned in natural-language systems.

(9) The principle of sequence: In extra-linguistic domains we observe that certain phenomena, events etc. may occur only in a certain sequence: Event A may occur only after event B has occurred. Also this principle has validity in language.

(10) The principle of substitutability: One element can under certain conditions be substituted for another, taking over the function of the latter.

(11) The principle of analogy: A relationship may exist between things, systems or processes that is based on a specific structural or functional congruence. This principle, significant in many fields of human behavior and also taken advantage of in technology (cybernetics) is observed in language. For example,

the so-called "Sprachgefühl" can partly be explained in terms of this principle (cf. Kainz, 1956, pp.296-393).

(12) The principle of redundancy: A system can properly function only when it has a minimum safety device against possible disturbances, by allowing for a certain amount of redundancy. Language could not function as an effective tool for communication if it did not allow for redundancy at its different levels.

(13) The principle of system and norm: The basic description of a system will reveal what is functionally possible within it. However, in actual performance, not all possibilities will materialize but rather selective processes will lead to what will be the norm in that system. The validity of this principle has clearly been recognized by linguists (cf. Coseriu, 1962, pp. 11-113).

(14) The principle of coherence: The human being perceives and processes informationally phenomena, events etc. in his life not as isolated occurrences but as phenomena showing coherences among themselves. The validity of this principle in language is accepted in recognizing the text as the basic linguistic component in the communication act (text linguistics).

(15) The principle of implicitness: In social intercourse, not everything is made explicit communicatively, for the communicating partners can rely on their previous and ever increasing experience. In language, this principle operates ~~contributing~~ syntactic and semantic explicitness.

It should be mentioned that these principles (and others) do not operate always at the same level.

Further, they may often appear to counteract each other, and one principle may gain priority over another when this is necessary to make the language system as a communication system function more effectively.

+) Part of the paper discussed at the Round Table Session on "Linguistics as an Empirical Science", XIIth International Congress of Linguists, Vienne (Austria), August 29 - September2, 1977.

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Francisco Carranza-Romero:

Diptongación y adipt o ngación en el kechwa de Ancash-Huaylas

Abstract

Diphthongation and Adiphthongation in Huaylas-Ancash Quechua

The term "Quechua" does not stand for a single language but refers to a group of dialects where six main varieties are distinguished. The Huaylas Quechua variety, among other features, is characterized by the dropping of the "n" in the final infinitive syllable. Even though this feature identifies Huaylas Quechua, the presence of diphthongs or of a long single vowel differentiates the subdialects of this variety of Quechua.

(LenC 17.3, pp. 96 - 102, 1977)

En la lengua Kechwa hablada en el Perú se distinguen 6 grupos dialectales, siendo uno de ellos el Kechwa Ancash-Huaylas que comprende todo el departamento de Ancash y algunas comunidades de los departamentos vecinos.

(Los símbolos utilizados en este trabajo son: s.inc. = sílaba inicial; s.int. = sílaba interior; s.f. = sílaba final; K.C.C. = Kechwa del Callejón de Conchucos; K.C.H. = Kechwa del Callejón de Huaylas)

Un ejemplo de la diferencia del kechwa ancashino de las demás variantes es su infinitivo sincopado (pérdida /n/).

Las otras variantes		Ancash-Huaylas	
		K.C.C.	K.C.H.
"Kuyani"	(amar)	"Kukay"	"Kuyee (kuye)"
"qellqani"	(escribir)	"qey	"qellqee (qellqe:)"
"asini"	(reir)	"asiy"	"asiy"
"qoni"	(dar)	"qoy"	"qoy"
"micuni"	(comer)	"mikuy"	"mikiy (miki:)"

Ahora, en cuanto a los fenómenos de diptongación que son co-existentes, debemos decir que cada fenómeno pertenece a una área geográfica definida:

La diptongación tanto en la sílaba inicial, intermedia o interior, y final se da en el Callejón de Conchucos - (desde la Cordillera Blanca hacia el oriente).

La diptongación Se manifiesta en la tendencia a la disolución de algunos diptongos para convertirlos en una vocal larga. (Callejón de Huaylas, al oeste de la Cordillera Blanca).

He aquí los tres diptongos ancashinos que sufren el proceso de disolución : ai, au, ui.

1. Diptongo "ai": Se mantiene inalterable en el Callejón de Conchucos.

Fenómeno de medialización larga (es decir, manteniendo su dos tempos) en el Callejón de Huaylas: ai > ee (e

1.1 Posición s.inc.

K.C.C: "wayta"	(flor)	K.C.H.:	"weeta"
"paytaku"	(encargo)		"peetaku"
"mayllay"	(lavar)		"meellee"

1.2 Posición s.int.

K.C.C.: "warayna"	(hasta mañana. -na part. enclítica: hasta)	K.C.H.: "wareena"
"pasaypa"	(inútil, a las justas)	"paseepa"
"yapyaykaa"	(estoy arando)	"yapyeekaa"

1.3 Posición s.f.

K.C.C.: "maray"	(Satán)	K.C.H.:	"maree"
"turmanyay"	(arco iris)		"turmanyee"
"ruray"	(hacer)		"ruree"

2. Diptongo "au": Inalterable en el Callejón de Conchucos.
Medialización larga, similar al anterior: au > oo (o:) en Callejón de Huaylas; pero con menos regularidad.

2.1 Posición s.inc.

K.C.C.: "au"	(sf)	K.C.H.:	"oo"
"aukis"	(anciano)		"aukis"
"auriy"	(amarrar enredando)		"auriy"

2.2 Posición s.int.

K.C.C.: "shakaullu"	(planta comestible)	K.C.H.:	"shakaullu
"mankaullu"	(especie de tuna ácida. Maran, shuuru)		"mankaullu
"illauru"	(planta medicinal de fruto rojo)		"illauru)

2.3 Posición s.f.

K.C.C.:	"kaynau"	(así)	K.C.H.: "keenoo"
	"wasichau"	(en la casa, -chau: en)	"wasichoo"
	"patau"	(planta comestible)	"patau"

3. Diptongo "ui": Inalterable en el callejón de Conchucos.

ai > ii (i:) Adiptongación con tendencia palatal larga más en verbos o en nombres de origen verbal, se da en el Callejón de Huaylas.

3.1 Posición s.inc.

K.C.C.:	"lluytsu"	(venado)	K.C.H. "lluytru"
	"ruyru"	(redondo)	"ruyru"
	"shuyshuy"	(colar)	"shuyshiy"

3.2 Posición s.int.

K.C.C. :	"mikuyna"	(coma ya)	K.C.H.: "mikiina"
	"qomlluyshu"	(planta medicinal de frutos muy amargos. Poylloqshu)	"qomlluyshu"
	"shamuyna"	(ven ya)	"shamiina"

3.3 Posición S.f.

K.C.C.:	"qaquy"	(sobar o frotar suavemente)	K.C.H. "qaqiy"
	"muruy"	(sembrar)	"muriy"
	"tushuy"	(bailar)	"tushiy"

DIAGRAMA Nº 1

Grado de regularidad de la adiptogación K.C.H.			
	s.INC.	s.int.	s. f.
ai > ee	+	+ -	+
au > oo	+ -	-	+ -
ui > ii	-	-	+ -

Es conveniente hacer las siguientes aclaraciones:

- Este proceso de adiptogación de K.C.H. es sólo en el plano fonético y no así en el fonológico, por lo que no trae ninguna interferencia comunicativa.
- Los ejemplos han sido léxicos, sintagmas frases y sintagmas oracionales de uso general.

DIAGRAMA Nº 2

Diptongos del kechwa Ancash-Huaylas															
Diptongos posibles	ai	au	ei	eu	ia	ie	io	iu	oi	ou	ua	ue	ui	uo	ui
Diptongos kechwa Ancash-Huaylas	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	
Diptongos K.C.C.	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	
Diptongos K. C. H.	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	
Diptongos no existentes en kechwa Ancash-Huaylas	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	
En proceso de adiptongación K.J.E.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	
Resultados de la Adiptongación	ee	oo												ii	
Ejemplos de Dipton.															
"rupay" rupee) (sol, quemar)	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
"tauri" (chocho, planta)	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
"qeulia" (ave de la puna)	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
"yaku" (agua)	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
"shiusha" (llovizna, garúa)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	
"qoy" (dar)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	
"waku" (adorato rio)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	
"weqllaa" (planta de las rocas)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	
"wira" (grasa, manteca)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	

Felipe Temoche :

Una tipología de las situaciones comunicativas*

Abstract

A typology of communicative situations

Problems in communication usually arise when any of the factors involved fails. To realize this, it becomes necessary to know how the five factors: "speaker, listener, channel, code and information" interact.

The factors may be constant or variable, which gives us a total of thirty different types of communicative situations. These are analyzed and illustrated with examples.

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* (LenC 17.3, pp. 102-109, 1977)

1. Componentes externos en la situación comunicativa

Una situación comunicativa (K) se representa como el conjunto de los factores comunicativos

H : hablante, emisor de información
O : oyente, receptor
C : canal (directo o indirecto), por medio del cual se trasmite la información
D : código, el conjunto de símbolos empleados
I : información, el mensaje.

Tomando tales elementos tendremos la fórmula:

$$K^{*} \text{ (c } \quad K = \{H, O, C, D, I\}$$

en la cual (K) es el conjunto de factores que intervienen en una comunicación.

2. Definición de "comunicación"

Una situación comunicativa se define como una función de tales factores:

$$s = f\ (H, O, C, D, I)$$

3. Variabilidad de los factores

Un factor puede presentarse de dos maneras diferentes según la situación:

(a) Variable (v)
(b) Constante (c)

Determinado factor puede ser constante en un acto comunicativo cualquiera, y variable en otra situación. Así, por ejemplo, el hablante puede ser un profesor, sacerdote, maestro de ceremonias, locutor, guía, etc. y puede usar un canal directo (frente a frente) o indirecto (correspondencia epistolar, por teléfono, radio, televisión, cable, etc.). Usando un código apropiado (lenguaje altamente especializado o muy elemental, idioma propio o extranjero, así como símbolos tales como señales de tránsito, claves, banderas, gesticulaciones, etc.) tal hablante podrá hacer llegar la información (didáctica, noticiosa, de entretenimiento, de orientación, etc.)

4., Tipos de situaciones comunicativas

La variación de los factores determina 30 situaciones comunicativas, las cuales dependen del número de variables o constantes que tengan.

4.1 Variación de un factor

Si tomamos como premisa el hecho de qué en una situación un factor tenga que ser variable y los restantes constantes, tendremos cinco situaciones:

Factor / Situación	H	O	C	D	I
11	v	c	c	c	c
2	c	v	c	c	c
3	c	c	v	c	c
4	c	c	c	v	c
5	c	c	c	c	v

Esta tabla se interpreta del siguiente modo:

Situación (1) : Un hablante cualquiera comunica a un oyente determinado, usando un mismo canal y código, cierta información. Implica una gran tendencia hacia la ritualización de la comunicación y se presenta en situaciones de subordinación, en ambientes sociales donde se observa un riguroso control. Por ejemplo: un examen, un servicio religioso.

Situación (2) : Cuando un hablante determinado trasmite a cualquier oyente, por medio de canal y código determinados, cierta información estamos ante una situación similar a la anterior. Se observa esto en las actividades de carácter público tales como una manifestación política, festejos, ceremonias de apertura o de clausura, seminarios, simposios, etc.

Situación (3) : En este caso la realización de la comunicación por los diferentes medios comunicativos se produce tomando en cuenta la ubicación del individuo. Se presenta, por ejemplo, entre dos amigos que se comunican por carta.

Situación (4) : La variabilidad del código puede manifestarse desde una lengua muy rudimentaria, un dialecto o una muy evolucionada, así como también ser materna o extranjera. Además, puede usarse un léxico muy elemental (materno-infantil, por ejemplo) o altamente especializado (técnico, científico). Lo observamos en una persona políglota en diversos ambientes.

Situación (5) : Determina casos de comunicación constante con diversas variantes. El caso de cónyuges de determinada región ilustra esto.

4.2 Variación de dos factores

El hecho de quedar tres factores en forma constante plantea diez tipos de situaciones comunicativas. En los casos que se describen a continuación, el orden de los factores es el mismo que el presentado en la tabla anterior.

Situación (6) : v v c c c

El cambio de hablante y oyente lo encontramos en una conversación cualquiera. La típica conversación sobre política nos sirve de ilustración.

Situación (7) : v c v c c

Motiva situaciones de repetición como se observa en las llamadas actitudes de refuerzo ("reinforcement").

Situación (8) : v c c v c

Implica el deseo del hablante de dejarse entender claramente. Se puede apreciar cuando el padre y la madre dan la misma información al niño.

Situación (9) : v c c c v

Motiva cierta disposición y esto le

da carácter restrictivo como sucede en los casos de alerta, advertencias, anuncios.

Situación (10) : c v v c c

Se aprecia en las relaciones formales como son los tratamientos de cortesía y saludos, así como también en los partes de matrimonio, avisos de defunción, proclamaciones, carteles, manifiestos.

Situación (11) : c v c v c

Es un caso típico de traducción. Lo apreciamos en un reportaje traducido para diferentes públicos.

Situación (12) : c v c c v

La variación del oyente y de la información la tenemos, por ejemplo, cuando una firma da publicidad a diferentes productos.

Situación (13) : c c v v c

Se refiere al variado uso del lenguaje por diversos medios, como sucede entre dos hablantes de distintas nacionalidades.

Situación (14) : c c v c v

Está determinada por la aproximación o lejanía de los interlocutores. Se presenta en el caso de un reportero que comunica distinta información usando diferentes canales.

Situación (15) : c c c v v

Establece situaciones perfectamente claras y unívocas. Las situaciones de bilingüismo ilustran este caso.

4.3 Variación de tres factores

La posibilidad de variar tres factores nos lleva a examinar diez nuevos tipos diferentes.

Situación (16) : v v v c c

Se interpreta como la socialización de una lengua determinada usada por un determinado grupo de hablantes y oyentes.

Situación (17) : v v c v c

Determina un tipo de comunicación

de carácter restrictivo como cuando se levanta una bandera blanca en señal de rendición. También se presenta en los informes escritos.

Situación (18) : v v c c v

Es el caso en que la reglamentación de estrictas formas de comunicación adquiere mayor importancia. Por ejemplo, el uso de Latín en los concilios religiosos.

Situación (19) : v c v v c

Exige que el oyente hable diferentes idiomas y sea accesible por cualquier medio, como sucede generalmente con los gobernantes, jefes, dirigentes, etc.

Situación (20) : v c v c v

Los casos de monolingüismo ilustran la situación de un mismo oyente que se vale de un mismo código.

Situación (21) : v c c v c

Se presenta cuando el oyente es accesible sólo por cierto canal como en el caso de un sacerdote en el confesionario.

Situación (22) : c v v v c

Otorga al hablante el monopolio de cualquier información como sucede con el responsable de una oficina general de informaciones.

Situación (23) : c v v c v

Se presenta cuando el hablante controla la información con ayuda de un determinado código.

Situación (24) : c v c v v

Origina situaciones de censura que se pueden producir, por ejemplo, en las comunicaciones postales o telefónicas.

Situación (25) : c c v v v

Establece interacciones de tipo convencional como las que se dan, por ejemplo, en una pareja.

4.5 Variación de cuatro factores

Variaciones de este tipo sólo permiten, lógicamente, la presentación de cinco situaciones comunicativas.

Situación (26) : v v v v c

Mantiene una constante información como sucede en las emisiones de carácter noticioso y en el habla cotidiana al tratarse sobre temas de actualidad.

Situación (27) : v v v c v

La utilización de un mismo código nos presenta casos en los que los grupos usan determinadas formas idiomáticas (ideolectos, jerga) que los caracteriza y diferencia de los demás.

Situación (28) : v v c v v

Al mantener un constante canal se nos presentan casos de comunicación masiva como, por ejemplo, en las trasmisiones radiales.

Situación (29) : v c v v v

El interés radica más en el oyente que en los otros factores, como sucede en las investigaciones públicas, registro de datos, exámenes minuciosos, encuestas, etc.

Situación (30) : c v v v v

En este caso es notorio el dominio del hablante ante los otros factores. Un conferencista podrpuede servir de ilustración.

Del análisis de estas treinta situaciones comunicativas podemos observar que algunas son más frecuentes que otras, pues la variación de los factores depende de diversas circunstancias. Algo notorio es que el papel del oyente y el del hablante pueden intercambiarse, lo cual no sucede con los otros factores.

Siendo la comunicación humana un fenómeno que se produce en situaciones tan diversas, eso mismo le otorga un elevado grado de complejidad. Debe considerarse, además, que dentro de cada factor se dan una serie de características no menos simples que determinan el éxito o el fracaso del

proceso de comunicación. En esto radica, mayormente, el origen de numerosas situaciones problemáticas.

En consecuencia, la preparación del hablante para poder expresarse adecuadamente no debe limitarse a esa habilidad sino que también debe tomar en cuenta el empleo de código y medios apropiados. Con ello se evitará la deformación de la información y la confusión en el oyente.

Referencias:

Ver también:

1) M. Hartig / U. Kurz: "Sprache als Soziale Kontrolle", Frankfurt am Main 1971, pp. 146-162.

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* Presentado en el Simposio Interno sobre "La importancia del lenguaje en la época actual" organizado por el Departamento de Idiomas y Lingüística de la Universidad Nacional de Trujillo en Julio de 1,974.